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The JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

Teaching Sociology in College

Francis J. Brown, *Editor*

Learning by Group Participation

Leslie Day Zeleny, *Editor*

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DECEMBER 1939

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

The Educational Sociology Section of the American Sociological Association voted, at its annual meeting in Detroit, December 1938, to again publish the papers to be read at the next annual Section meeting in the December 1939 issue of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY, the official publication of the Section. At this same meeting, its action of the previous year was reaffirmed:

"That the December issue be made available to all interested in the activities of the Section upon the payment of fifty cents, twenty-five cents of which shall be used by the Section to establish a permanent mailing list, the remainder to reimburse THE JOURNAL for the cost of publication and mailing the issue. Money should be sent to Professor F. J. Brown, School of Education, New York University, Secretary of the Section."

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PROPOSAL FOR A FIRST-COURSE TEXT

READ BAIN

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

I will not discuss the first course in much detail. From reading the considerable literature on this subject,[1] one gets the general impression that elementary texts are very diverse in content, widely different in organization, and exhibit marked conceptual and theoretical confusion. Some texts are oriented toward social problems; others, toward social evolution by way of cultural anthropology and biology; still others are oriented toward geography, ecology, genetics, race, or population; some make a conceptual approach and some are primarily descriptive of the structure and functioning of the major social institutions; some emphasize social psychological (even Freudian) factors while others try to use data and concepts which are essentially societal. The materials may be presented from any of several methodological points of view, though most texts utilize all in varying degrees. Among the common methodological approaches, we may mention case studies; statistics; graphs and

[1]One of the most recent papers is Paul B. Foreman, "An Analysis of Content in Introductory Sociology Courses," *Social Forces,* December 1938, pp. 211–219. Foreman cites a number of papers on the subject, including the complete report of the American Sociological Society's Committee on the Introductory Course which appeared in *The Journal of Educational Sociology,* September 1933, pp. 1–82. Some additional papers not cited by Foreman are: L. D. Zeleny, "Introductory Sociology in State Teachers Colleges," *Sociology and Social Research,* July–August 1939, pp. 555–561; Richard T. LaPiere, "Content and Technique of Teaching Introductory Sociology," *ibid.,* March–April 1937, pp. 351–355; Carl E. Dent, "The Status of Introductory Sociology, on the Pacific Coast," *ibid.,* March–April 1937, pp. 356–360; L. L. Bernard, "The Objectives of the First Course in Sociology," *ibid.,* January–February 1936, pp. 203–214, and a somewhat similar article, "Function and Content of the First Course in Sociology," *The Journal of Educational Sociology,* December 1935, pp. 231–242; Read Bain, "Suggestions for the First Course in Sociology," *ibid.,* January 1933, pp. 285–289; H. E. Jensen, D. G. Stout, H. E. Meyer, L. A. Guessaz, Jr., "Teaching Sociology in Colleges and High Schools," *Social Forces,* December 1936, pp. 216–225, and a symposium in the same journal, March 1931, pp. 319–343, by E. B. Woods, R. E. Baber, F. H. Hankins, C. A. Dawson, and M. Willey; Read Bain, "High School Sociology," *The High School Teacher,* April 1931, pp. 134–137, 152–155, may interest those who teach the elementary course and prepare teachers for it.

other pictorial, topological, and diagrammatic devices; historical development; and generalized description with and without illustration by concrete data.

The result of this confusing diversity is that students who transfer from one institution to another may have had an elementary course so different in content, terminology, and mode of presentation that they are poorly prepared for their new academic situation. Students who enter certain graduate schools may also be handicapped because of their peculiar undergraduate training. Some of the misunderstandings and terminological controversies of professional sociologists may be both a cause and effect of the diversity and confusion in the first course. Certainly the vagueness of the field generally called sociological contributes to the ill repute of sociology among other social scientists, still more so among physical and biological scientists, and also among publicists, journalists, and intelligent laymen.

No text is limited to any specific definition of the field, body of data, or mode of presentation. All texts have considerable conceptual, contentual, and presentational similarity. There is a body of fact and theory which roughly may be called sociological. By and large, sociologists have a universe of discourse which enables them to understand each other fairly well and to make explicit their differences as well as their agreements. In recent years, this area of agreement has been increasing rapidly as a result of more (and more careful) factual research and more rigorous thinking about the theoretical implications of research methods and findings. This is reflected in recent textbooks, especially since 1933, when the Society's Committee on Introductory Sociology published its report and made recommendations as to what the first course should contain. Eubank's *The Concepts of Sociology,* in 1932, and other similar works since have called attention to the need for greater care in the definition and use of concepts and other technical terms

in sociology.[2] In 1938, the Committee for Conceptual Integration was organized and already has produced some useful work.[3]

In view of these facts, it is probably true that there is much more consensus among sociologists as to their field of inquiry and teaching than frequently is asserted by themselves and others. This is also probably true of sociological theory, the terms in which it is expressed, and the supporting data for hypotheses, principles, and interpretations. Many apparent misunderstandings are due to emphasis on particular research problems and the necessarily different methodologies which must be employed because of the peculiarities of the problems and the personal interests, special skills, and professional training of the investigators, or the limitations of time, money, and staff.

Space prohibits any discussion of the first course except in the most general terms. In 1933, the Society's committee suggested that the content of the first course be organized under the following six general categories: groups and group life; fundamental social proc-

[2] E. E. Eubank, *The Concepts of Sociology* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1932); H. Becker and L. von Wiese, *Systematic Sociology* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1932); H. A. Phelps, *The Principles and Laws of Sociology* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1936); G. A. Lundberg, *Foundations of Sociology* and S. C. Dodd, *The Dimensions of Sociology* (to be published in 1940 by the Macmillan Company). A few of the many articles along this line are: Read Bain, "The Concept of Complexity in Sociology," *Social Forces*, December 1929, pp. 222–231, and March 1930, pp. 369–378; Read Bain, "The Concept of Social Process," *Proceedings of the American Sociological Society*, August 1932, 26, pp. 10–18; G. A. Lundberg, "Quantitative Methods in Social Psychology," *American Sociological Review*, February 1936, pp. 38–54, and discussion by Willard Waller, pp. 54–60 (*see* also Waller's "Insight and Scientific Method," *American Journal of Sociology*, November 1934, pp. 285–297); G. A. Lundberg, "The Thoughtways of Contemporary Sociology," *American Sociological Review*, October 1936, pp. 703–721; R. V. Bowers, "Conceptual Integration and Sociological Theory," *ibid.*, June 1938, pp. 307–319; Harry Alpert, "Operational Definitions in Sociology," *ibid.*, December 1938, pp. 855–861; S. C. Dodd, "A Tension Theory of Societal Action," *ibid.*, February 1939, pp. 56–77; H. Blumer, "Science Without Concepts," *American Journal of Sociology*, January 1931, pp. 515–533; John H. Mueller, "The Present Status of the Cultural Lag Hypothesis," *American Sociological Review*, June 1938, pp. 320–327.

[3] A. Blumenthal's work, *Six Essays on Culture*, is the most extensive. It is cited and reviewed in the August 1939 *American Sociological Review*, pp. 588–594. S. C. Dodd, "A System of Operationally Defined Concepts for Sociology," *ibid.*, October 1939, pp. 619–634, though in preparation long before the C. C. I. was organized, is presented as part of the work of this committee. On pages 709–710 of the above issue, there is a list of the work in progress; at least a half dozen papers by members of this group are completed but not yet published.

esses; cultural heritage; social organization and structure; social change; society and the individual—plus familiarity with about sixty selected concepts.[4] This particular formulation seems open to criticism although the material presented under these captions would doubtless be quite similar to that found in a number of well-known texts. Most of these headings are indefinite, overlapping, and all-inclusive; there is still considerable difference of opinion about the fundamental social processes; social change characterizes all societal life, group behavior is involved in all, and the general subject matter of sociology is the social heritage—the cumulative culture; society and the individual suggests an unrealistic antithesis to which modern sociology should devote little attention. Social organization, if it refers to the eight or ten major institutions, is fairly definitive.

Writing in 1935, Bernard suggests that the first course should deal with concrete, measurable material interpreted by more inclusive concepts (page 233) and that the general content should be organized under four main headings: factors producing society; a concrete picture of its evolution; organization of the evolved society; and the control processes that keep it functioning (page 238). Bernard holds that the first course should aim to show: how society came to be; how the student functions as a unit of it; how the social world looks in cross section; and how control processes work (page 241).[5] He further states that such a course should deal with maladjustments but in a more or less subordinated fashion—teachers of the first course should be neither Philistines nor image breakers. I believe Bernard's formulation is better than that of the committee because it is more in accord with what I think are the modern trends in sociology. While in general agreement with his position, as I understand it, I should like to develop briefly a few additional points which I think are important.

College first courses in all subjects frequently are organized and

[4] *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, September 1933, pp. 80–81.
[5] L. L. Bernard, *op. cit.*, *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, December 1935, pp. 231–242.

taught as if all students were going to be specialists. The physical and biological sciences are perhaps more prone to this than the social sciences, but some of the latter also err in this respect. As sociology becomes a more mature natural science, develops an esoteric body of factual knowledge, formulates refined and standardized technical terms, improves and invents complicated techniques of research, there is grave danger that it will fall into this same pedagogical error. Perhaps the flocking into sociology in recent years is partly due to the fact that sociology has not treated all students as potential specialists to as great a degree as the other sciences have. In many ways, sociology is the science which still offers the inquiring student the most general liberal-arts education. This may be true because it is still an undeveloped science, but I trust it will preserve this quality even after it has become a rigorous and highly developed natural science.

This is sound policy, I think, but we should not fall into the opposite error of making introductory sociology the happy hunting ground for clever, dramatic, popularizing teachers who cater to the undisciplined expression of "their own ideas" (write prejudices and folk preconceptions) by immature, snap-course-seeking students. Sociology still has to live down considerable unsavory notoriety on this score: "smutology," "sexology," "shockology," "socialism," "radicalism," "atheism," "smatterology," "reformology," "hodge-podge-ology," and so on.

If we are to rear a body of citizens capable of applying the findings of sociology to their personal and societal lives, the first course must emphasize two main points: first, that social and societal phenomena are natural phenomena, and that sociology is a natural science which proceeds according to the same general point of view and by the same general methods that characterize all science; second, the first course must furnish a theoretical and terminological framework within which students can organize the extant common sense and scientific factual knowledge so as accurately to communicate it. This is an indispensable prerequisite to scientific

thinking about societal phenomena. Many men have learned the facts and terminology of a science without ever acquiring the scientific habit of mind; few have acquired the latter without the former. Some men in special fields master the words, facts, and techniques of their science and even do sound research in it but still remain essentially ignorant of the logic and philosophy and habit of mind of science. Others may be masters of the logic and philosophy, and have the scientific habit of mind, as these are related to their own special field, but be worse than the intelligent man on the street when they venture into alien fields. Some of the Nobel prize winners in the physical and biological sciences who deliver *ex cathedra dicta* on social problems are good cases in point.

The first course should emphasize the scientific habit of mind, scientific methodology, and the relation of sociology to the other sciences. If we can get students who are not specializing in sociology to understand and accept the idea that sociology is a natural science, that social phenomena are natural phenomena and must be dealt with accordingly, and give them a vocabulary with which to express and understand the implications of this point of view, we will be laying a foundation in the thoughtways of the public mind for the development and application of the science of sociology (and the other social sciences). We also will capture many inquiring, creative minds that otherwise might go into the more "respectable" physical and biological sciences.

This raises the troublesome question of the technical vocabulary of sociology. This apparently is taking care of itself. Much of the alleged confusion is verbal rather than ideational. We frequently are referring to the same sense observable phenomena by different symbols. As the science develops, we will tend to devise denotative symbols for both specific and generalized phenomena. This is one of the reasons why the technical vocabulary will tend to become more quantitative. Therefore, part of the vocabulary of the first course should consist of such simple quantitative concepts such as

means, modes, medians, arrays, correlations, percentages, rates, distributions, deviations, time series, etc.

The verbal technical terms offer greater difficulty, but, from an unpublished table kindly supplied to me by Mr. Foreman, which he constructed in connection with his investigation cited above, it appears that even here there is much greater consensus than is generally recognized. He has described in the article the general method of collecting, weighting, and comparing this material. The 105 instructors rated 88 of the 143 concepts at 2.5 in importance. According to his scale, this may be called "important-minus." Seventy-two were rated 2.8 or above, and 56 were rated 3.0 or above; *i.e.*, "important." Greater consensus is shown if we consider the rank order of the assigned values. The 46 southern instructors placed only 6 concepts higher than the 72d item of the entire group; the 59 non-southern instructors, only one; and the 49 instructors in departments giving advanced degrees, only 3. By and large there appears to be considerable similarity in the judgments of the importance of these concepts by all classes of instructors. While it cannot be proved, I imagine there is also substantial agreement as to the meaning of the concepts.

Another aspect of the technical vocabulary is the names and contributions of the more important living and dead sociologists. The first-course student should be familiar with 25 or 30 such names. This does not mean that much attention should be given to the history of sociology. This material should be learned incidentally as a result of the instructor's mastery of his field. Kekulé, Berzelius, Wöhler, Dalton, Avogadro, Priestley, Lavoisier, Mendelyeev, Moseley, etc., are names every elementary chemistry student should know, and most of them do; Comte, Spencer, Gumplowicz, Novicow, Durkheim, Tönnies, Simmel, Weber, Lombroso, Quételet, Tylor, Le Play, Tarde, Ward, Giddings, Sumner, Cooley, etc., are just as important. Their contributions should eventually be as much a part of the general knowledge of intelligent laymen as are the

names of literary, military, political, philosophical, and pictorial "great men," and, to a less but rapidly increasing degree, those of great inventors, captains of industry, physical, and biological scientists.

In view of the fact that general concepts really refer to abstracted aspects of organic societal behavior, and in addition are frequently ill defined, overlapping, and connotative in nature, the first course should make its approach through what may be called institutional analysis. Instead of talking about competition, coöperation, assimilation, conflict, control, interaction, group life, collective behavior, etc., we should deal with such relatively concrete, measurable data as can be presented in connection with the major basic institutions such as industry, government, education, religion, family, health, social work, recreation, and possibly communication. In this way, the relevant cultural evolutionary, historical, and present-day material can be presented; necessary or useful conceptual terms can be introduced at the most strategic points; the fundamental relativity of knowledge and values and the organic relations between them and all societal organizations can be presented. Thus, we would be using materials with which the student already has considerable firsthand experience and so could help him organize his knowledge of the social world scientifically as well as present him with new data and new interpretations. For example, the discussion of each institution can be put into Bernard's threefold environment framework in a much more meaningful way than is possible when we treat the physical, biological, and cultural factors separately. In making this organic tenfold institutional approach, we can point out the persistent problems of change—disorganization and reorganization—which characterize all societies; we also can notice the fifty-seven varieties of particularism, determinism, and panaceatic reformism to which the deterministic particularisms have given rise and can emphasize their inadequacies both as to "explanation" and remedy. We can thus escape the charge that sociology is merely a

smattering of political science, economics, history, anthropology, geography, education, etc., by giving a comprehensive sociological treatment of these various aspects of man's organic social life. This view makes sociology a science related to the other sciences, and particularly to the social sciences, somewhat as general biology is related to the botanical and zoölogical specialties.

The pathological aspects of societal life should not be stressed in the first course; social problems should be mentioned, of course, chiefly by the teacher as illustrative material. However, he should not tell the students what to think about such matters, or what ought to be done about them; rather, he should teach them how to define the problems and how to think about them; *i.e.,* scientifically. The first course should train students how to ask proper questions about social data; *i.e.,* questions which are capable of being answered according to the canons of science; students should be trained to judge whether proposed answers deal with proper questions, thus defined, and whether the answers conform to the criteria of science. It is obvious that all problems that seem to be of great importance to human beings involved in the actual hurly-burly of living cannot be expressed in "proper questions" as defined above, and many, even when so expressed, at present cannot be answered factually and scientifically. In such cases, the student must depend upon what we may euphemistically call enlightened common sense; *i.e.,* he must guess and take a chance, as man has always done. However, if he has developed the habit of thinking scientifically about social phenomena, his opinions are likely to be more rational, tentative, and tolerant, more subject to modification in the light of new knowledge, than is true of the opinions of those who are bound by folk tradition and class bias.

Such a procedure will not only furnish a liberal education and thus be of practical personal value to the student and the community in which he lives, but it will also lay the soundest foundation for the scientific development of the social sciences. The concepts

of sociology will continue to become more specific, denotative, and descriptive of actual sense-observed social and societal phenomena. The first course is a most important sector in the battle to make sociology a reputable natural science. As yet, man has never studied his kind, jointly or severally, as men have studied stones, plants, and insects for hundreds or even thousands of years. The correspondence between Linnaeus and one Rev. John Walker regarding *Bryum striatum* should be instructive to sociologists.[6] We need thousands of devoted amateurs in our field as has been the case for years in astronomy, physics, geology, botany, and zoölogy, but we cannot have them until we devise a generally accepted societal taxonomy, terminology, and techniques of observation and see to it that they are widely diffused among intelligent laymen. To a considerable extent, this must be done through the first course. Much progress in this direction has been made in recent years, as I have already pointed out. In another fifty or seventy-five years, we may have examples of correspondence between the then reigning sociological Linnaeus and the devoted unknown enthusiast.

In the meantime, since there is this growing consensus as to the field, terminology, and research methods of sociology and an increasing body of knowledge generally accepted as sociological, an interesting possibility of accelerating these trends is suggested. Briefly and bluntly, it is that the Society should sponsor a basic introductory text. Some members will doubtless regard this as undesirable, impossible, or absurd. Text writing is looked upon by some as a way of gaining professional status and possibly some money—if the author is clever, or lucky, or both. A text ordinarily does not add much to a man's professional reputation unless it is also something in the nature of a treatise. In recent years, most introductory textbooks have been largely compilations of work done by other men. Frequently, they consist of digesting, rewriting, and

[6] W. M. Smallwood, "Extracts from Two Unpublished Letters of Linnaeus," *Scientific Monthly*, July 1939, pp. 65–70.

extensive quoting from research articles and monographs. Except in some special fields, textbooks seldom make much contribution to the science. In recent years, there have been some notable exceptions to this general rule; perhaps in the early days of sociology such exceptions were the rule. Today, however, elementary texts furnish fewer and fewer such exceptions.

The result is what inelegantly but not inaccurately may be called the "textbook racket." Texts are often written because publishers and professors are primarily motivated by the hope of pecuniary profit; texts, even good ones, are sometimes given doubtful revisions for the same reason—with resultant exploitation of students; young men write texts in the hope of promotion or better positions or for ego-satisfaction, thus using the time and energy which should go into productive research and better teaching. This situation tends to preserve and promote the confusion in the field and terminology of sociology; "schools" of sociology are created and perpetuated; the well-known lag between new scientific knowledge and its appearance in textbooks is increased; and tens of thousands of students, because of high-pressure salesmanship, regional, personal, vested academic interest, and "schools-of-sociology" biases, are getting their first knowledge of sociology from inferior texts.

If the Society should sponsor a basic text, a good many of the above conditions would be lessened or eliminated. Such a book would tend to standardize the content and terminology of the first course and thereby increase the growing consensus in theory and method; it could be revised frequently enough to take account of the rapidly growing and changing body of theoretical and factual knowledge and yet there would be no pressure for pseudorevisions; it would release the time and energy of able research men who otherwise might be trying the textbook road to fame and fortune; it would tend to improve the teaching of elementary courses; it would militate against "schoolitis" in sociology and also against the academic "friendly gestures" incident to the adoption of textbooks;

it would save students many thousands of dollars each year; finally, it would give the Society a steady income of $15,000 to $20,000 a year, with the possibility of this figure going as high as $50,000 or $60,000 a year. Such an income could be used for productive research and to assure its publication when completed. Some of it could be used for scholarships and fellowships, to put *The Review* on a sound foundation, and to publish a monograph series.

No one seems to know how many students enroll in the first course each year. At Miami, about thirteen per cent of the entire enrollment is in elementary sociology courses each year. If this is a representative figure, which I doubt, there would be about 130,000 first-course students each year. One of the best informed college-department men of one of the most successful publishing houses estimates it at between 60,000 and 70,000. Two other publishers' representatives concurred in this guess; 50,000 is probably a conservative estimate. I should think the Society-sponsored text would "sweep the field" to the extent of 15,000 to 25,000 copies, since one of the most successful texts last year is supposed to have sold about 10,000 copies. One of the widely used books which sells for $3.75 can be manufactured for 63 cents per copy for the first 15,000 and for 51 cents thereafter. By some changes, which would in no way lessen the quality of the book, this price could be somewhat reduced. Let us suppose the cost the first year is 65 cents and that it can be shipped and placed in the hands of the student for an additional 35 cents. If the Society wanted to take a dollar profit per copy, the student could obtain for $2.00 a book which now costs him $3.75. Thus, the Society would make $15,000 the first year, which, of course, would not become a net profit until the second year, by which time the book should be selling much more than 15,000.

I think the proper way to prepare such a text would be to have five or six specialists write as many sections under the direction of a general editor. The authors and editor should be chosen for their scholarship and also for their ability to write clear, concise, inter-

esting textbook material; the general editor should be the best man the Society could induce to do this difficult and disagreeable labor of love. While the editor and authors would doubtless receive some professional recognition for their work, they should not receive much money—perhaps $500 or $600 each for the authors and $1,000 for the editor. This would leave a net profit of about $10,000 for the first year, allowing $1,000 for incidental expenses. If the book were to sell for $2.50, the Society could make $17,500 the first year and $22,500 the second, on the 15,000 copy basis. If a book of readings to accompany the text were also prepared, this would add something to the total net income. If 25,000 copies were sold, the Society would be in fairly good shape financially and could afford to give the editor and authors substantial Christmas presents.

It might be more desirable to handle the distribution through an established publisher. I was unable to get any very specific propositions in reply to my necessarily vague and tentative presentation of the project. However, all to whom I wrote were much interested—and some were even excited. If the Society should react favorably to the scheme and take steps to carry it out, we could doubtless make a contract with some well-known publisher to handle the book on a commission basis which would return us substantially the same amounts as I have mentioned. However, I do not think this could be done at a selling price of less than $3.00. It might even be done on a satisfactory royalty basis, especially if we should contract to issue our subsidized monograph series under the imprint of the same publisher, dividing profits, if any, on some mutually satisfactory basis. A very generous contract with a publisher is probable because it is improbable that large college textbook publishing houses would like to see the first plan outlined above in successful operation. What if other learned societies should go and do likewise? Publishers would probably make some sacrifice to get their imprint on a book which would sell 15,000 to 25,000 copies or more per year for as long as sociology is taught in American colleges. It

would require little or no "pushing" to get adoptions and would be revised only as often as the Society deemed necessary. The publishing of the book would also carry with it a monopoly of the proposed monograph series.

If the Society should approve this proposal, the procedure might be somewhat as follows: A committee on the basic text would be appointed, perhaps by the executive committee. This committee, on the basis of what is already known about the first course and other information which it might have to get, would formulate a general outline of the objectives, content, and methods of presentation and submit it to the members through *The Review* for criticisms and suggestions. The next step would be to poll 300 or so well-known sociologists for authors of the various sections and the general editor: the general membership might also be invited to participate in this. This done, the fate of the project would be in the hands of the editor and his authors. The executive committee should probably pass upon the final manuscript before publication is definitely undertaken. In this case, the honoraria to authors and editor should be contingent upon publication. This also implies the incorporation of the Society—which I think should be done in any case.

If such a plan were adopted in December 1939, the outline should be ready for the June 1940 *Review,* the poll completed by September, the manuscript ready for the printer by the fall of 1941, and the text ready for distribution by July or August 1942.

I believe the successful completion of such a project by the American Sociological Society is perfectly feasible. It would do a great deal to integrate the Society and to raise its unity and morale. It would also accelerate the development of the science of sociology by giving us some fluid funds which are the sinews of science as well as war.

MEASURING LEARNING OUTCOMES IN INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY

LLOYD A. COOK and RUPERT C. KOENINGER
The Ohio State University

For a decade at least, sociologists have been concerned with introductory courses, but in the main their interest has centered on course aims and methods.[1] Aside from a few small-scale studies of learning outcomes, such as attitude changes, we know little in an exact sense about the effects of our teaching on students. The present study arose in part from this general situation and in part from the department's desire to improve its work.[2] In this paper, we shall report the more important findings, and we shall make such proposals for the improvement of teaching as the data appear to warrant.

SITUATION, PROCEDURE, AND SAMPLE

Introductory sociology at Ohio State consists of three basic 5-hour courses, each oriented in terms of a text written for the course.[3] The first course, 401, is a study of "fundamental principles," and on its completion students enroll in 402, a social-problems course, or in 407, a community sociology course limited to education majors. Students must be of sophomore rank or above, and a sequence of ten hours (401–402, 401–407) is required for advanced work. From three to eleven sections of a course are run each quarter, with classes averaging about 40 students. While senior professors teach at least

[1] Cf. C. C. North, "Introductory Course in Colleges and Universities," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, October 1933, pp. 68–77; L. L. Bernard, "Functions and Content of the First Course in Sociology," *ibid.*, December 1935, pp. 231–242.

[2] Research conducted by Mr. Koeninger under Mr. Cook's supervision and with the assistance of various persons. It is a pleasure to acknowledge indebtedness to the department chairman and faculty, to the Graduate School and the Commerce College, to the National Youth Administration, and to the Bureau of Educational Research.

[3] Texts are: F. E. Lumley, *Principles of Sociology* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935); Cecil C. North, *Social Problems and Social Planning* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1932); and Lloyd A. Cook, *Community Backgrounds of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938).

one introductory class, the main teaching load falls on instructors and graduate assistants. These persons are given little or no classroom supervision.

The present study was planned as a pre- and end-test of learning outcomes in three large areas: information, attitudes, and critical thinking. In addition to these data, we secured student reactions to course and instructor by means of a check-type rating form. Every effort was made to construct tests which were comparable, items being taken in part from past examinations, selected to parallel course content, tried out and discarded if found to be poor testing material. All tests carried their own instructions and were administered at regular class hours during the first and last weeks of a quarter. Test reliability, as calculated by the Kuder-Richardson formula number 4,[4] is given in table 1, and is believed to be highly satisfactory

TABLE 1

ESTIMATED RELIABILITY OF TESTS

Course	*Number of Cases*	*Information*	*Attitudes** *A*	*D*	*U*	*Critical Thinking*
401	395	.62	.62	.69	.85	.82
402	143	.63	.87	.87	.94	.80
407	151	.72	.50	.67	.85	.82

* A—agree, D—disagree, U—uncertain.

for group purposes. Instructors assisted in the testing program but in no case worked with their own classes, nor were they informed of our purpose beyond a formal statement.

Pre- and end-tests were obtained for 395 of the 454 students in the 401 course (seven classes) in the autumn quarter 1938, and for 143 in 402 (five classes) and 151 in 407 (four classes) during the following quarter. In brief analysis, about 40 per cent of the 401 group were males, over 90 per cent were in the age range 17 to 24, and less than 10 per cent were above sophomore standing. About 50 per cent

[4] G. F. Kuder and M. W. Richardson, "The Theory of the Estimation of Test Reliability," *Psychometrika*, II (1937), 158.

were from education, 25 per cent from arts, 13 per cent from commerce, and the remainder from other colleges. Ratios varied little for the 402 and 407 samples, though certain selectivity was evident.

ACQUISITION OF INFORMATION

Education has been, and still is, identified with the acquisition of information, and actual or assumed possession of knowledge is made the chief criterion of scholastic progress.[5] Recognizing this condition as fairly true of introductory sociology, information tests were built along the lines of emphasis in each course. Each set of tests consisted of 50 five-part multiple-choice statements, students being instructed to check the most reasonable answer in each series. Answers were scored by keys made from the combined judgment of instructors in a course. Students were requested to sign their names but were told, as in all other tests, that results would not affect their grades.

As to be expected, significant differences in student achievement were found by instructor and class. Table 2 shows that average students in P's class, for instance, knew correctly at the outset of the course 52 per cent of the items on which they were tested. They

TABLE 2

AVERAGE SCORES BY INSTRUCTOR AND CLASS ON 401 INFORMATION TEST AS A PERCENTAGE OF POSSIBLE SCORES

Instructor	*Class Size*	*Score on Pretest*	*Score on End Test*	*Change*
A	81	47.7	60.0	12.3
E	34	47.7	61.8	14.1
L	64	49.1	68.2	19.1
M	32	46.8	73.5	26.7
N	77	47.1	60.7	13.6
O	57	46.0	61.0	15.0
P	50	52.0	64.1	12.1

[5] Cf. William Satchel Learned, *The Student and His Knowledge* (New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching), Bulletin 29, 1938, pp. 5, 7, ff.

increased this score to 64.1, indicating a gain in information of 12.1 points, whereas M's class gained 26.7 points. This is, incidentally, the greatest gain found in any section of any course, the lowest being a score of 4.5 for instructor J in a 402 section. It is significant also that none of the 16 classes tested knew less than 46 per cent of the material to be covered in a course, as represented by our test of 50 items, and 402 classes averaged from 54.7 per cent to 58.2. Since these tests were made up largely from regular examination questions, there is some basis for believing that instructional aims have been set too low for maximum student achievement.

Of interest, too, is a comparison of average scores by courses. While table 3 shows important differences in pre- and end-test results for each course, its outstanding feature is the gain made by 407

TABLE 3

AVERAGE SCORES BY COURSE ON INFORMATION TESTS AS A PERCENTAGE OF POSSIBLE SCORES

Course	*Pretest*	*End Test*	*Change*
401	48.3	63.7	15.4
402	55.7	67.2	11.5
407	52.0	72.0	20.0

students in the mastery of facts, concepts, and principles. Whether this 20 per cent increase should be called high, average, or low is not known in any final sense. Kornhauser[6] reports average changes in information in an economics course as ranging from 16.7 in the first quarter to 8.0 in the third, but aside from this study we have little comparable data. It can be said, however, that the gains found are small indeed in comparison with potential increases. In theory, average 401 students for example could have increased 51.7 points; their actual change was 15.4, or less than one third of the test potential.

[6] Arthur W. Kornhauser, "Changes in the Information and Attitudes of Students in an Economics Course," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, January 1930, pp. 288–298.

Scores by class and course naturally obscure individual variations. In the 407 course, for instance, seven students made a negative change; *i.e.,* made lower ratings at the end of the course than at its beginning. Six per cent increased their information from 0 to 6 points, 11 per cent from 7 to 14 points, 28 per cent from 15 to 22 points, 36 per cent from 23 to 30 points, 11 per cent from 31 to 38 points, and two students made gains of more than 39 points. These scores suggest the great range of abilities found in introductory classes, abilities which would seem to warrant more homogeneous groupings of students and more individualized instruction.

ATTITUDE CHANGES

After noting his relative inability to further the growth of student information, one instructor remarked that he would "rest the case on attitudes." This teacher would agree with Faris[7] that the prime objective of education is not the inculcation of facts but "the production of useful habits and attitudes." Wittingly or not, we do affect student beliefs and attitudes, and our task was to construct a measure of these changes. The procedure was to assemble several hundred viewpoints dealt with in a course, sift and reformulate them until the professor in charge of that area agreed that we had in miniature a general pattern of the course. This yielded three sets of tests, each containing 100 statements. Students were asked to check each item as agree, disagree, or uncertain, and answers were marked by use of a "staff point of view."[8]

Attitude changes are shown in table 4. The table is read as follows: at the start of the 401 course, students agreed on the average with the staff's point of view in 54.4 of the 100 opportunities given. In the end test, they agreed with 60 of these statements, showing a shift toward staff viewpoint of 5.6 points. At the beginning, their

[7] Ellsworth Faris, *The Nature of Human Nature* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937), pp. 148–149.

[8] Usually a consensus; at times a majority agreement as to desirable attitudes.

TABLE 4

ATTITUDE CHANGES IN INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY COURSES AS A PERCENTAGE OF POSSIBLE CHANGES

	Pretest			*End Test*			*Change*		
Reactions	*401*	*402*	*407*	*401*	*402*	*407*	*401*	*402*	*407*
Agree	54.4	53.7	59.9	60.0	66.1	66.2	5.6	12.4	6.3
Disagree	18.8	25.0	16.4	21.0	19.0	18.1	2.2	—6.0	1.7
Uncertain	26.6	21.5	21.0	18.6	15.9	16.2	—8.0	—5.6	—4.8

disagree score was 18.8, and at the end 21.0. Thus, during the term, there developed a 2.2 per cent opposition to staff views. These same students were uncertain at the outset in respect to 26.6 per cent of the statements, and in 18.6 at the end. With a decrease of indecisions by 8 points, it would appear that here is where attitude changes were most numerous.

The 402 group increased its agree score by 12.4 points, almost twice the average number of changes made in the 407 group.[9] Moreover, the former students reduced their disagreements by 6 points, whereas the latter increased their opposition to staff positions by 1.7. Uncertainties were lessened by 5.6 and 4.8, respectively, indicating as stated that attitude changes consisted in the main of translating indecisions into positive and negative points of view.

Every teacher knows that students do better in some parts of a course than in others, and he suspects that the major cause is previous experience. He knows also that he underteaches certain units and overteaches others. To deal with these practical matters in course planning, we tabulated attitude data by parts or divisions of a course. Table 5 shows prescores, end scores, and degrees of change in the 407 course. In general, the shift is toward staff views in all parts of the work except one, the social influences shaping child personality and school responsibility for guidance. Here average

[9] For comparable scores, *see* John F. Cuber, "Effects of an Introductory Sociology Course on Students' Verbalized Attitudes," *Social Forces*, May 1939, pp. 490–494; J. R. Geberich, and A. W. Jamison, "Measurement of Attitude Changes During an Introductory Course in College Sociology," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, October 1934, pp. 116–124.

TABLE 5

ATTITUDE CHANGES IN 407 SOCIOLOGY BY PARTS OF THE COURSE AS A PERCENTAGE OF POSSIBLE CHANGES

Parts	*Pretest*			*End Test*			*Change*		
	A	*D*	*U*	*A*	*D*	*U*	*A*	*D*	*U*
All	59.9	16.4	21.0	66.2	18.1	16.2	6.3	1.7	—4.8
Community Life	55.3	23.0	20.6	60.0	21.3	19.7	4.7	—1.7	—0.9
Child Personality	56.3	20.7	23.2	58.1	25.2	15.4	1.8	4.5	—7.8
Educational Philosophy	66.7	12.6	20.0	75.9	13.5	13.6	9.2	0.9	—6.4
Schools in Action	63.9	18.8	17.2	68.2	18.3	12.5	4.3	—0.5	—4.7
Teacher Behavior	69.0	16.0	15.2	73.4	14.1	12.4	4.4	1.9	—2.8

students were opposed to staff positions with a beginning score of 20.7, and instead of decreasing with time this score increased to 25.2. Attitude changes occurred, to be sure, but they were not in directions anticipated by the staff. If this can be viewed as a failure in teaching, it may be said—by the same reasoning—that the greatest teaching success is found in the area of educational philosophy as defined in the course. Here students shifted 9.2 points toward agreement with the staff, and they reduced uncertainties by 6.4 points. They increased disagreements by less than 1 per cent.

Item analysis of the 407 test discloses that students made no change in point of view, or changed away from faculty views, on 32 of the 100 statements. On 25 statements, 1 to 6 per cent of the 151 students shifted toward staff values; on 22 statements, 7 to 13 per cent; on 8 statements, 14 to 20 per cent; on 9 statements, 21 to 30 per cent; and on the remaining 4, more than 39 per cent. The nature of these changes can be seen in a few random examples. In each case, the faculty view is underlined, and changes away from it are preceded by a minus sign.

All in all, test results support an inference of fairly effective teaching, if we assume that the function of instruction is to facilitate the development of attitudes. That attitude changes were due primarily to course work, and not to extraneous influences, cannot be fully

Statement	*Pretest* A	D	U	*End Test* A	D	U	*Major Change* A	D
1. Once education was viewed as a solution for all social problems; now it is our major problem	72	17	10	90	4	6	18	
13. As long as single women need jobs, married women should not be hired to teach in public schools	31	51	18	36	41	23		−10
30. A serious mistake made by schools in immigrant areas is to Americanize children too rapidly	28	26	46	94	2	4	66	
33. I would favor a law extending the age of compulsory schooling both upward and downward	31	47	22	49	31	19	18	
71. A satisfying life for the masses cannot be had without basic changes in our economic system	51	22	27	43	25	32	−8	
81. The best way for a new teacher to control a class is to put on a bold front and take the offensive	13	83	4	14	73	13		−10

proved, though several checks were run. For instance, a control group of 401 students was given the 402 tests and a second group was given the 407 tests. Neither class showed attitude shifts at all comparable in kind or degree with experimental sections. Apparently introductory courses possessed attitude patterns the impact of which was sampled in the tests. Another point should not be overlooked. There are many ways of changing attitudes, including professorial pressure and indoctrination. While no formal study was made of teaching procedures, we believe that classwork at Ohio State differs in no important way from the lecture-discussion method elsewhere. Courses differ mainly in degree, with 402 probably achieving its superior results by reason of greater preoccupation with attitudinal materials.[10]

[10] By its very nature, a social-problems course contains more attitudinal material, for human problems are essentially clashes in values.

CRITICAL THINKING

An unvarying aim of education has been the development of reflective thinking. To this end, Latin, mathematics, and logic have been used, with emphasis on drill and memorization. Today we discount these practices, although the liberation of intelligence remains almost as much a problem as ever. Sociologists, with their reiteration of "the interrelatedness of life," have claimed to teach critical thinking on social matters, and the newly developed interpretation of data tests gives the best known checks on such assertions.[11] These tests have been widely used in experimental grade and high schools,[12] and the physical-science divisions at Ohio State have found them most helpful in replanning college curricula.

Each of the present interpretation of data tests consisted of six problems based on course content, with 100 to 115 statements about the cases, situations, charts, or graphs presented. The 401 test, for example, dealt with scientific experimentation, rural and urban population trends, a preliterate cultural pattern, feeble-mindedness and its transmission, ethnic assimilation, and a field trip to a mining area. Statements were made about each problem situation which, in light of the facts given, were true, false, probably true, probably false, or indeterminate because of insufficient data. To ensure maximum reliability, these items were used in approximate proportions of 10, 10, 20, 20, and 40.[13] Student answers were graded by a key made from the combined ratings of faculty members in each course, and, like all other test data, they were tabulated directly on an I. B. M. machine.

[11] *See* Ralph W. Tyler, *Construction of Achievement Tests* (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1934); Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, *Science in General Education* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938), pp. 396–413.

[12] For example, Dwight L. Arnold, "Testing Ability to Use Data in the Fifth and Sixth Grades," *Educational Research Bulletin* (Ohio State University), XVII (1938), 255–259.

[13] For the theory and construction of data tests, *see* Louis E. Raths, "Measuring the Interpretation of Data," *ibid.*, XVII (1938), 98–107.

The first score in the following table is the general accuracy score. It shows the ability of the average student to mark correctly all items in the test. The second score reveals ability to identify true and false statements; the third, those which are probably true or false; the fourth, those which are not supported by enough data to permit judgment as to truth or falsity. The fifth score sums the student's crude errors; the sixth penalizes him for going beyond the data, for example, in marking a probably true statement as true. The seventh score is for overcautiousness, or inability to use correctly all the data given in the case.

In general, the higher the positive change in the first four scores in table 6, and the higher the negative changes in the next three, the

TABLE 6

SCORES BY COURSE ON INTERPRETATION OF DATA TESTS AS A PERCENTAGE OF POSSIBLE SCORES

	401 Course			*402 Course*			*407 Course*		
Scores	*Pre*	*End*	*Change*	*Pre*	*End*	*Change*	*Pre*	*End*	*Change*
1. General accuracy	52.8	56.3	3.5	56.5	57.9	1.4	57.7	61.2	3.5
2. True, false	64.0	65.1	1.1	62.4	65.7	2.9	62.9	66.6	3.7
3. PT,PF*	32.7	34.7	2.0	43.1	40.9	−2.2	41.2	36.5	−4.7
4. Insufficient data	43.9	51.4	7.5	57.9	54.9	−3.0	57.0	63.0	6.0
5. Crude errors	11.3	10.9	−0.4	5.5	4.6	−0.9	5.4	4.9	−0.5
6. Beyond data	45.4	39.5	−5.9	37.7	36.4	−1.3	40.7	35.8	−4.9
7. Overcaution	21.3	25.0	3.7	15.4	15.7	0.3	11.7	11.8	0.1

* Probably true, probably false.

more successful a course would appear to be in teaching critical thinking. Inspection will show that among the twenty-one changes in scores, all but six are in desirable directions. For example, 401 students improved their skill on the average by 7.5 points in detecting ideas not supported by facts, and they reduced their tendency to go beyond the data by 5.9 points. Curiously, all changes in the seventh score are in the wrong direction, showing that in trying to teach cautiousness in handling data we are apt to make many students overly cautious. It is notable also that pretest scores are higher in 402

and 407 than in 401, suggesting a possible transfer of training from the first course to a second course.

Perhaps the most significant point in the table has not yet been mentioned. The 401 students started their work with a score of 52.8 and ended with a rating of 56.3. Problem-solving ability was increased 3.5 points. Similarly, 407 students made an average gain of 3.5 as compared with an increase of 1.4 in 402. Thus, whatever skills the social-problems course may have taught, it was definitely below the other two in developing the insights required for unraveling the situations presented in the tests. This assumes, of course, that tests were comparable, an assumption supported only by identical processes of test construction.

INTERCORRELATIONS

Intercorrelations between the three types of tests were uniformly low, suggesting that each test tended to measure a fairly distinctive set of skills, aptitudes, or abilities. Likewise, correlations between test scores and student-background factors, such as sex, age, class, point-hour ratio, community size, and father's occupation, were not in general very significant. Possible exceptions were few in number as, for instance, a correlation in the 401 course of .476 between student point-hour ratio and end-score on the information test. This latter rating correlated .455 with final grade in the course. A relationship of –.71 between point-hour ratio and change in attitude toward staff views is significant. Apparently, the more intelligent the student, or at any rate the higher his total college grades, the less his tendency to pattern beliefs and convictions on staff points of view.

STUDENT EVALUATIONS

We come now to the final part of the study, an attempt to sample student reactions to various phases of the teaching situation. On a two-page check-type rating form, students were asked to evaluate the course as a whole, achievement of specific objectives. the text-

book used, teacher personality traits, lectures, class discussion, course planning, and out-of-class contacts with instructors. These forms were given during the last week of a course and were scored by NYA students under supervision. Students were asked to return "honest and critical" answers but not to sign their names, and scores are reported as a per cent of the total possible score.

Table 7 gives a comparison between the sociology course taken at the time and other current courses. This table is read as follows: in the opinion of 46 per cent of all 401 students, the sociology course

TABLE 7

STUDENT REACTIONS TO INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY COURSES IN COMPARISON WITH OTHER COURSES TAKEN DURING THE SAME QUARTER

Reaction	*401*	*402*	*407*	*Reaction*	*401*	*402*	*407*
More interesting	46	49	60	Less interesting	19	15	10
More instructive	29	42	51	Less instructive	21	12	11
More difficult	20	16	17	Less difficult	41	38	31
More scientific	36	30	24	Less scientific	24	25	14
More practical	46	50	69	Less practical	19	18	8
Better taught	37	39	39	Less well taught	14	20	9

was more interesting than any concurrent course, and in the judgment of 19 per cent it was less interesting.[14] If sociology courses are compared with each other in terms of proportionate student vote, the 407 course has a somewhat better rating. This may be due to factors within the course or to the fact that students are education majors. By the same criterion, 401 sociology is rated as most scientific and most difficult of the three courses, and as least interesting, instructive, and practical. In truth, the low ratings polled by various sections of this course may well be a matter of departmental concern. Here students form their first impressions of sociology. and less than one third take any work beyond the required ten hours.

Profound variations in course ratings were found by class and instructor. For example, on the category "more interesting," the

[14] The middle category "about the same" in interest, etc., has been omitted because of lack of space.

student vote ranged from 30 to 79. That is, less than one third of O's class said the course was more interesting than any other course in the same quarter, as compared with four fifths of P's students. On "more instructive," the range of class averages was 11 to 57; on "more difficult," 8 to 44; on "more scientific," 10 to 47; on "more practical," 28 to 72; and on "better taught," 7 to 61. We know, of course, that instructors are neither alike nor equal, yet these extreme ratings—in conjunction with test results—can point only to the conclusion that some of our teachers are not maintaining standards set by average classes.

Table 8 reveals the extent to which students affirmed an "above average" achievement of course objectives.[15] Since a somewhat dif-

TABLE 8

STUDENT RATINGS OF "ABOVE AVERAGE" ACHIEVEMENT OF MAJOR AIMS IN INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY COURSES AS A PERCENTAGE OF POSSIBLE RATINGS

	Course		
*Aims**	*401*	*402*	*407*
1	61	64	65
2	37	55	48
3	76	35	58
4	49	71	65
5	47	58	34
6	31	26	40
7		43	23
8		43	

* Only the sixth aim was the same in all courses and therefore comparable.

ferent formulation of aims was made for each course, the chief value of the table is to show the extent to which a course achieved its objectives in the judgment of its students. For instance, 401 met with marked success in showing that (3) "man is conditioned by his social environment," 402 in establishing the axiom that (4) "personality is shaped by culture," and 407 in (1) "developing a point of view as to what schools should be and do," and in (4) "visualizing

[15] "Average" and "below average" have been omitted.

the school as a community-service agency." The first course was weak in the opinion of students in (2) "developing a sense of social responsibility," 402 in (3) "increasing the learner's sociological vocabulary," and 407 in (5) "furthering an understanding of democracy in human relations."

The one objective common to all three courses was (6) "to interest students in a further study of sociology." Starting with an index of 31 in 401, student interest fell to 26 in 402 and rose to 40 in 407.

Students were asked to compare their sociology textbook with other texts used during the quarter, and to rate the first book as to content and organization, and on "contribution to your own knowledge and growth." On the first point, 35 per cent of the 401 students rated their text as "above average," 28 per cent of the 402 students, and 75 per cent of those in 407. One fourth of the first group returned "above average" rating on the second point, one third of the 402 enrollment, and one half of those in educational sociology.

Part II of the rating form called for an evaluation of five related aspects of the teaching situation, as seen in table 9. In constructing this inquiry, positive and negative items were alternated, and every tenth space was left blank for student write-ins.[18] By positive item is meant, in reference for example to teacher personality, "good sense of humor," "interested in student views," "understands student needs," "treats students as mature persons," and "has genuine enthusiasm for his subject." Negative items were: "sarcastic, boastful, overcritical," "lacks poise; ill at ease," "personal appearance not pleasing," and "has peculiar mannerisms." Selection of the forty items used in rating teacher, course, etc., was fairly arbitrary, though choices were based on other rating forms and on student papers dealing with likes and dislikes.

Students were instructed to check only those statements which they felt were true of a teacher or a course, and each item was scored separately as a percentage of possible checks on that item. Averages

[18] Few in number and hence not scored.

were computed for positive and negative items in each large area, such as teacher personality, by adding percentages and dividing by the number of opportunities for ratings given in that area. Negative scores were then subtracted from positive scores, and these ratings appear in table 9. The final composite score is an average of these averages, with the fifth area (conferences, etc.) weighted at slightly less than one half the value of any other area because it contained only four items instead of the usual nine items.

TABLE 9

SUMMARY SCORE OF STUDENT RATINGS OF INSTRUCTORS BY COURSE AND CLASS IN ALL INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY SECTIONS

	401							*402*					*407*			
Areas Rated	*A*	*E*	*L*	*M*	*N*	*O*	*P*	*C*	*I*	*J*	*K*	*L*	*F*	*I*	*L*	*M*
Teacher personality, behavior in class	75	87	80	63	63	62	84	76	81	14	65	84	81	76	82	75
Lectures: presentation, etc.	57	76	66	65	−1	27	80	72	53	−4	71	74	80	53	71	72
Class discussion, student participation	45	60	66	69	24	39	84	74	36	0	58	75	46	26	76	69
Assignment, readings, tests, reports on	27	33	40	36	38	19	54	31	34	10	34	65	58	46	57	62
Conferences, nonclass contacts, etc.	51	53	51	33	38	40	35	48	60	4	34	81	21	44	63	33
Composite score	51	63	62	56	32	37	71	62	52	5	55	75	62	50	71	66
Rank order	5	2	3	4	7	6	1	2	4	5	3	1	3	4	1	2

Table 9 clearly reveals profound differences in class situations as felt and expressed by students. With final composite scores ranging from positive ratings of 5 to 75, there can be no doubt of significant differences in the ways teacher and course affect learners. We have previously listed the items which were used in rating teacher personality, and J's 14 points stand in sharp contrast to E's near perfect score of 87. Student reactions to lectures range over even greater extremes, with N's mark of −1 and P's 80. Class discussion shows somewhat less variability, but even here the data suggest that some teachers are much better class managers than others. Assignments, readings, tests, etc., vary in student approval from an average vote of 65 in one section taught by L to that of 10 in J's group. Conferences

and office contacts show the lowest ratings in the table, indicating presumably a felt need by learners for more associations with their already too busy instructors.

INTERPRETATIONS

Such findings as we have presented would meet with varied receptions in any representative department of sociology. That the Ohio State faculty authorized the study and participated in its rigorous requirements is evidence of a desire to improve instruction. While any action must await departmental discussion, we can at the moment suggest certain general interpretations.

While average increases in information of 15.4, 11.5, and 20.0 may not seem impressive, the range of scores above these norms leads one to think that, on the whole, introductory sociology does teach much factual data. But with averages of some classes in a course twice those of other classes, it is evident that learning situations are profoundly different. This suggests the need for two follow-up studies, one by way of verification of reported findings and the other to determine causes. One practical application of the pretests as now developed would be to use them another quarter to locate slow- and fast-moving students. These persons could be placed in classes in line with their growth potentials and instruction could be adapted to their needs and abilities.

Attitude shifts of 5.6, 12.4, and 6.3 toward staff viewpoints do not seem as significant as could be desired. Again differences between sections within the same course are outstanding, and again the question as to how some instructors were able to achieve the results with which their groups are credited. Much the same question arises in respect to critical thinking, with average changes of 3.5, 1.4, and 3.5 in the three courses. These outcomes do not appear impressive when viewed as end products of a quarter's work, though the development of the abilities in question may be a more difficult process than is usually thought.

From a practical standpoint, the most revealing findings of the study come from personality and course ratings. With student reactions as extremely varied as we have indicated, there is no doubt that some instructors have failed to achieve good working relations with their students. This is admittedly a complex problem, yet the ranges would seem to be far too great to be explained away by possible differences in class make-up, time, etc. It seems reasonable to suspect that some instructors have not seen themselves as their students see them, and that a critical inspection of these ratings might be made the basis of far-reaching changes. Needless to add, student opinion is not the only measure, nor the best measure, of a teacher's effectiveness, nor is teaching the only service which he renders.

Test results, plus knowledge of the teaching situation, raise questions of a more general nature. Time and again, we have been struck by a teacher's utter lack of concern for basic aims and purposes. In staff conferences, he waits for orders, and in the classroom he quizzes pupils on the day's assignment. Education is mastery of textbook materials, not a process of coöperative planning in which use is made of a variety of learning resources. This leads to the suggestion that we need at times to reconsider the things we are trying to accomplish; to reflect again on what our classes should be and do in terms of the changes in student behavior that we desire as learning outcomes.

Moreover, we must know more than where we are going; we must know ways of getting there. That is, we must be experimental in the true sense of the word, ever willing to revise practices in light of proved results. This calls for skill and imagination, but most of all it demands motivation—the desire to be an effective teacher. That the teaching job *needs* to be done better than we have done it is evidenced by findings already presented. That it *can* be done better was demonstrated in a recent experience with a group of freshmen. These students were selected by the junior dean as representative of

all education freshmen, and they were taught by methods commonly used in 407[17] but quite different from those used in 401 and 402. On the battery of tests reported in this paper, the experimental class averaged higher scores than did the great majority of 401 and 402 sections. On information, for example, their pretest mark was 5.7 points lower than the 402 score, but their end-test gain was almost twice the increase of the best 402 class. Since these freshmen had had no previous work in sociology, the case may be used to argue that the 401 course is not useful as a prerequisite to 402 and 407. We have cited the experience only to show that, with no radical changes in methods, a significant improvement in learning outcomes is possible.

Teaching aims and methods are both dependent on staff organization. If the set-up is one where teachers of introductory classes are in the main young and inexperienced, at work on degrees and moving on through graduation, it is most difficult to give them the guidance so necessary for their own development. While this problem has many facets, one in particular would seem to merit attention. It appears evident in education, as in business, that persons who are denied responsible participation in decision making will, in time, become irresponsible, and good teaching cannot be had in that way. The need is for a program of in-service education, plus classroom supervision, under the direction of a person interested in introductory work and skilled in the techniques which it demands.

[17] Lloyd A. Cook, "Uses of Community in Teacher Education," *Curriculum Journal*, October 1939, pp. 261–264.

GROUP EDUCATION FOR A DEMOCRACY

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PERMISSIVE VERSUS REPRESSIVE CULTURE

The definitions of educational objectives and their meaning have been consistently changing to accord with the changing understanding of the individual and the needs of modern life. It is therefore essential that teaching methods and personal relations in the school be adjusted in consonance with these new developments. It is necessary, for example, that in view of the challenge to democracy, the school become a training ground for democracy. This can be best accomplished through participation on the part of the students, not only in classroom learning, but actually in the conduct of the schools themselves. The sociologist's interest in education is confined to results, rather than to its process. By and large, sociologists concern themselves little with the psychological processes that determine attitudes and values. Recent events have shown, however, that these attitudes and values are as potent factors in the life of a nation and in international affairs as are economics and governments. It is high time that sociologists, psychologists, and educators get together and fuse their fields of endeavor, because actually these fields are only segments of one unitary human problem. They are so interrelated that their separation makes each impotent.

In a democracy, the concepts of personality, social process, and social structure are less definitive than they are in authoritarian groups and countries. Democracy is a relation and a mental attitude in which much of what occurs is unpredictable. The free flow of interaction among individuals and groups, and the consequent results from such interaction give rise to situations and values that cannot be always envisaged. Excepting in some of its simplest factors, democracy cannot follow a blueprint. For example, a democracy can have a planned economy or health service, but it cannot

have a controlled science, as is the case of Germany and Soviet Russia; nor can relationships among individuals be fully prescribed. A democracy can have a plan for its technological growth and development, but it cannot as easily prescribe the forms which art should take, thought be directed, or the movement of the populations confined. Democracy, in itself, is a flux. It is socially creative. I have described elsewhere democracy as a *permissive culture.*[1]

In a permissive culture, the function of education, as well as government, is infinitely more complex. It has flux. It is creative and dynamic. We shall return to this particular point somewhat later in this paper.

The relationships of an authoritarian group, on the other hand, give us an entirely contrary picture. Here there is no flux or creativity. There are absent the constant change, interaction, free movement, and adjustments necessary both in vital group life and in individual relationships.

In a democratic structure of society, the problem becomes considerably more complex; for here it is necessary that we build up attitudes of mind in conformity with group needs. We seek to establish emotional responses and convey knowledge-content that would lead to adjustability to new situations and to intellectual hospitality. Here, then, we are confronted with a problem which has received little attention even in American education, and especially in public schools.

Perhaps we ought to diverge at this point for a brief definition of democracy as it relates to the individual. Democracy is commonly understood as being a form of administration, as participation by a voter in decisions of governmental, or institutional, and group affairs. Psychologically speaking, however, democracy is more than that. It means a fundamental acceptance of the idea of equality. It means that all people are fundamentally equal in their rights as human beings; that all have an equal right to the pursuit of their

[1] S. R. Slavson, *Character Education in a Democracy* (New York: Association Press, 1939).

own happiness in their own way, even though they may differ from others. Democracy, further, means the ability on the part of the individual to compromise, in order to make possible and aid the group process. It means freedom of the individual in thinking, functioning, and movement, conditioned and limited by his responsibility to the group as a whole, and to the individuals in it. Democracy also means that each individual in it has an altruistic attitude when it comes to the benefit and advantages of the group. It is a relationship among human beings that makes them hospitable to each other and to one another's ideas.

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

The kind of personality structure and character formation that makes all this possible cannot be achieved through authoritarian education, where the child, from his earliest times, submits, instead of interacts. The early egocentric structure of the infant's personality and the sadistically aggressive drives that are our biologic heritage can be modified and redirected through reactions with other people. It is necessary for us in education to employ the child's craving for acceptance by the group. This craving is our surest check upon his primitive unsocial trends. When we take children and place them in rows behind one another, with the focus of attention being the teacher and blackboard, or an individual child called up to that blackboard, we are not activating situations which lead to democratic attitudes. On the contrary, we are instead immobilizing our children socially. Here, every one in the room is socially frigid and emotionally hostile, because of the essential frustration to which every one, including the teacher, is subjected. When subject-matter learning is the emphasis in school, it drives the children in the classroom away from one another. This is even more true when grades are earned in competition with every one in the class. Whether we recognize it or not, there is a subtle hostile atmosphere in the average classroom. Each child considers every other as his competitor.

There is one common ground on which they meet: their antagonism to the teacher. The majority, who do not get top marks, must needs become resentful of those who are more successful. This resentment may express itself directly as hostility, or, in converted form, such as submissiveness to the intellectually more successful individual. It often takes the form of a pervasive contempt for intellectuality, which is so common in America. We may not like to admit it, but there is an outright aversion in children to the school itself.

The direct or implied authority of the printed word and of the teacher habituate many children, who do not become rebellious, to accept authority unquestioningly. This attitude is detrimental to the survival of a democratic plan of life. There *is* need on the part of every individual to recognize superiority and authority. This, however, should be an evolving process and should be an outcome of individual development and friendly attitudes. Authority in a democracy must never, in any relation, be based upon fear or self-abnegation. It must rather be accepted as a benevolent superiority, aiming at the benefit of the individual and the group as a whole. Such authority, especially in the economic and political fields, would turn the minds of people against autocratic authoritarianism and forms of government described as "totalitarian."

SUBJECT MATTER AND ANTISOCIAL ATTITUDES

How then shall schools be conducted so that they might aid in the development of values and attitudes fundamentally democratic? The first requirement is a negative one. The center of classroom teaching must not be subject matter, particularly for young children. The imposition of learnings that are overmature for the child is definitely dangerous to personality development. Not only does it check free flow of relationships and social experimentation so essential to character, but it establishes fear in the child. It imbues him with antisocial attitudes, as already indicated. The hostile attitude toward the teacher is much more serious than is generally rec-

ognized. The teacher symbolizes the authority of the adult world. Hostility to her, as to a parent or sibling, is transferred to the world generally. Further, the focus of subject matter didactically taught checks the social process, group, and social interaction needed in character formation essential in a democracy.

It seems to me that, despite our advanced knowledge of child development, we employ very little, if any, of that knowledge in our schoolwork. Physical and manipulative activity, exploration, and experimentation are inherent drives, not only of the human child, but also of the young of other animals. It is through the exercise of these that basic knowledges are acquired, security in relation to the environment is established, and dynamic attitudes towards things and ideas grow out.

But what does education do with these? In the home, on the street, in the playground, and at school, the child is confronted with an endless number of prohibitions, blockings, regulations, and schedules. Instead of habituating children to exercise their natural dynamism, curiosity, and interests, we turn them into conformists to the will of the adult and to a schedule. The younger the child is at the time when such restraints are applied to his constructive efforts, the more fundamental is the damage.

The above leads us to a second point in the immediate reforms that are essential in transforming schools into agencies of democratic procedure. This is the thought that, in an atmosphere of free activity and exploration, there is opportunity for social interaction. It is the pitting of one person against another, first rather crudely and primitively, that is the basis of socialized personality. The child must *discover* for himself what follows unsocial behavior, rather than being *told* that it would bring unpleasant reactions. These reactions may be a return attack from a victim or group retaliation. The child must also learn practically that through sharing of books, objects, materials, and tools he finds group acceptance and harmony with others. If he should attempt, as is often the case, to hoard materials, he will soon learn from the group itself that such tech-

niques will not be tolerated. I recall from my school-teaching days many instances of children who first came to a free activity workshop. They would hoard tools. They would place them near-by and announce that they were going to use these tools, and that no one must touch them. This was not countenanced long by the others who happened to need them. On occasion, there occurred actual fist fights. Frequently, two children would roll on the floor, pummeling one another, while the others, absorbed in their work, would pay no attention. It often took from three to four months before an understanding was established in the group. But that was a true social experience. Should the teacher have laid down laws in advance, these laws would probably have been accepted. However, the inner modifications within the personality would not have occurred in so fundamental a manner. Such interaction may not remain, as a matter of fact it never does, on so primitive a level. In a socially motivated classroom, socialization occurs not only in learning but also in the conduct of the classroom and school as well. Numerous situations arise, such as the arrangement of the room, order and cleanliness, noisiness and rowdyism, plans for study and trips—these and many other situations come up in which group participation and exchange of views are possible. Experience shows that few children learn in the ordinary school the attitudes necessary and the ability to listen to others calmly and discuss objectively. Deliberation, tolerance, and interchange of views, so essential to democracy both as a process and as an attitude, are not engendered in the average school. On the contrary, the intolerance and irritability of the teacher, which is almost inevitable in a repressive classroom, set a pattern and a habit quite contrary to the needs of a deliberative democratic procedure.

THE GROUP PROCESS IN EDUCATION

Thirdly, if we are to bring education in alignment with democracy, it will be necessary that teachers, at all stages of the pupils' development—during elementary school, high school, and the uni-

versity—unloosen the group process which is now held in check by a resistive teacher-assertive education. The dynamics of the group is one of the blank pages in our psychological and sociological knowledge. So little has been done in this field that it must still be viewed as an uncharted area of human living. Some of the group dynamics implicit in the group process have been indicated in Chapter IV of *Character Education in a Democracy*. The very condition of being in a group and in active interaction with a number of people simultaneously has profound effects upon personality and development of attitudes. An aggregation of people, children or adults, is not a group, educationally speaking. Educationally viewed, a group is a collection of a small number of individuals in a prolonged intimate, direct interaction with one another, in a face to face relationship, as a result of which the personality of each is more or less permanently modified.

As educators, we must ask ourselves the question: Are we localizing our educational process too much? Are we overemphasizing the intellectual achievement at the expense of more essential experiences that lay the foundations for wholesome social adjustment and therefore also wholesome character structure? Are we, through our eagerness to pass on informational material, depriving children and youth of group and activity experiences that are essential to them and therefore contribute to personality maladjustment? Are we, through our didactic emphasis upon subject-matter knowledge, preventing the development of the capacity to navigate in a complicated social environment in a way that would retain personal integrity and bring about social advantage?

THE GROUP PROCESS IN THE CLASSROOM

The answer to all these questions lies in the introduction of the group process to the classroom. It is not possible in so brief a paper to give the extensive implications of these queries. Surely, as one reads the rich literature dealing with education, sociological

problems, and democracy—especially in the light of developments in Europe—one must become fully cognizant of the value of education as a social experience. But, in addition to social adjustment, the group provides intellectual learnings as well. The present writer has had opportunities for considerable experimentation in group learning both among children and adults. In a skillfully set environment, free activity leads to subject-matter learnings. Children, and adults as well, under free conditions gather into small groups on the basis of common interests or personal likes. They enter into a dynamic intellectual interstimulation. They ask questions of one another; they challenge; they explain; they look up material together; they argue; they agree; they disagree. These and other forms in which intellectual activity is both stimulated and tolerated are evolved as a result of free active group life in an educative setting.

It seems to me that even progressive educators have for years made the mistake of assuming that creative activity alone develops personality and trains character. As we read the literature of progressive education, we become aware of this emphasis. Creative expression is the watchword and the major objective. But, as I look back at many years as a progressive classroom and activities teacher, I am becoming more and more aware of the fact that it was not the activities themselves that were of such importance, but rather the fact that these activities were free *in a group situation.* To my mind, this latter fact is the outstanding element in the very evident physical and mental development of our pupils. The praise and recognition that these children gave one another; the coöperative experiences in common interests; the feeling of responsibility toward the teachers, the class setting, and the school were, as I see it now, much more important than the fact of having produced beautiful paintings, impressive clay modeling, fine scientific reports, or plays. The situation of being accepted, of integrating with other people, or receiving respect, consideration, and freedom from an adult were much more permanent influences than the satisfaction of the so-called creative

expression. It seems to me that the concept of activity, as it applies to education, must be viewed more widely than is generally the case. Educative activity occurs on five different levels. To be sure, these coalesce, overlap, and frequently are simultaneous. They are motor, emotional, aesthetic, intellectual, and social activity. One might say that all the preceding phases of educative activity culminate or are unified in the last—the social activity—which acts as a stimulant and instigator to the others. Supposing we supplied possibilities for all types of motor and aesthetic activity to a child completely isolated from others. His personality would still remain undeveloped and he would be unfit for group living. However, a child placed in a free activity group would be stimulated into the various avenues of expression along all the other lines, and thus his education would be assured. The richer the environment to which the group is exposed, in terms of opportunities for occupations and learnings, the richer would the group's stimulation upon each member also be.

The function of the school in a democracy therefore is to supply opportunities for activity in a group setting. In this type of education, the role of the teacher is that of a person who sets situations for activity and for personal interaction. Group living in the school must be evolving as it is everywhere else in a free society. Group life is part and parcel of the democratic plan of life. Hence, in a school, as well, the evolving element of group living must be carefully planned. As the child grows older and becomes more ready for participation and for initiating more types of activity, it is necessary that the teacher supply possibilities for him. The capacity range for group living for very young children may be limited to the orderliness of the classroom. As they grow older, these children can participate in maintaining order and decorum in the entire school. The school must also become a factor in the neighborhood life. By means of councils, and associations, the matter of playgrounds, housing, political and social problems come under purview. Pupils should become aware of and increasingly take part in philanthropic, char-

itable, and patriotic movements. In other words, the school must aim to create an *articulate community*. If education is to serve democracy as it should, vital interest in community and national life must be aroused among pupils at school. They must see and function in an ever expanding area and in ever evolving interests, to encompass international and world affairs. All this, of course, cannot be done without planning, discussing, studying, reading, reporting, and taking action. This is the cycle in which group learning occurs; out of which grow those attributes and attitudes which are essential to desirable character, wholesome personality, and social responsibility and real democracy.

GROUP LEARNING IN THE SCHOOL

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The aim of education in a democracy, to use the words of an eminent educator, "is to train all that are born to all that is human." The acceptance of this aim puts on the shoulders of the educator the burden of planning for every child, regardless of mental or physical ability, aptitude, environmental circumstances, or heredity stumbling blocks, a program designed to develop every innate possibility and turn him out a happy, useful citizen.

To attain this goal in the earlier days all children were lumped together and taught en masse. The same program was given to all regardless of interest or aptitude with the vague hope that those who survived and attained individual success would be the justification of the method. The welfare of the others did not seem to matter.

Later there was a tendency to swing to the opposite extreme. The child's needs, interests, and inclinations received, in some cases, so much attention that children became too self-centered to assume social responsibilities. This situation contributed to social maladjustment and also individual unhappiness.

Today we realize more and more that if democracy is to survive education must develop individuals able to take their part with others in the solution of common problems. We realize that the survival of any individual is dependent upon the survival of all and that group adjustment, which means also personal happiness, has become a vital matter. The new task of the educator, then, is to develop in youth a sense of group responsibility and an ability to make satisfactory adjustments to many kinds of group life.

Group learning is one way to meet the new social need. It recognizes both individuals and groups. In planning group work the teacher must keep in mind the fact that the group is made up of individuals. Consequently, it is necessary for the teacher to make a

careful diagnosis of each child—his strengths and weaknesses, his personality traits, his ability to participate in social relationships, and his needs and interests. Having done this, the teacher is more able to guide each child into groups where he will be able to make the best adjustments.

Two examples of group work in the school serve to show its educational possibilities. Under the direction of the teacher a certain fourth grade decided to write a booklet about their State. The children met in groups to discuss ways and means of best accomplishing this job. Many of their favorite textbooks were examined to see how books were written. A list of all parts of a book—title page, table of contents, chapters, pictures, and bibliography—was made. As the study progressed, acknowledgments, a song, a graph, an introduction, original stories, and poetry were added.

All writing was done at the close of a unit of work. The children chose topics according to their interests and proceeded to do their research and writing singly or in groups. Each contribution was submitted by the writers to the entire class where it was evaluated according to standards previously set up by the class. This work provided a fine opportunity for the development of leadership, good judgment, appreciation of the efforts and ideas of others, coöperation in working together, and pride in doing a piece of work well.

During this project an unusually fine spirit was shown by the entire class. By the time advertising plans, sales talks, sales, and a tea for helpers had been completed, ample opportunity had been provided for every child to participate in many different ways. He had formulated goals and set up standards by which he could measure his work, and he had had the fun of finishing a job to which every one had contributed his best efforts.

The group method of learning may also be used to help solve the problem of the retarded child. The slow child seldom has a worthy contribution to make in the ordinary class; he is forced to listen to others day after day; and he receives little commendation from

teachers and classmates. Thus he acquires a low social status which it is the job of the teacher to try to improve.

One year a fourth grade happened to have an unusually large number of retarded children. Because of illness, family mobility, or failure they were below grade. Their status seemed to them to be so low that they felt further effort to be of little use. The group method was used to solve many of their problems. Careful study of the children revealed that many had artistic ability. Consequently, group work in art was stressed. The class was given the task of making a wall hanging for the classroom. A piece of rust linen left over from making curtains was selected upon which to make a picture for a bare spot on the wall. Suggestions of all kinds came from the members of the group. Finally, the children were divided into smaller groups of four or five and given strips of wrapping paper on which each group could plan in chalk a composite of ideas depicting some phases of history.

Each group found a vacant spot on the floor, put down the wrapping paper, and talked over ideas that might be used. Occasionally, a child would go to the board to illustrate his idea which was rejected or accepted by the group. After a general idea was worked out, the chairman gave each child a particular part of the mural on which to work. Chalk was used because it was so easily erased, and sketches could be easily changed. Spacing, proportion, and continuity of thought were watched with a critical eye. The children usually showed good judgment in their group planning. Parts that were inappropriate were erased and made over.

At the close of the class period each committee presented its mural to the class. The best one was chosen by the children after careful evaluation. The mural selected was one that had been made by an academically slow group. Their pattern was transferred by carbon to cloth and a color scheme was chosen after conference with the teacher. Oil paints and stiff brushes were provided, and the group began.

More serious, painstaking, and earnest effort had never been done by any group before. They found the regular period did not provide enough time, but they were more than glad to work during free periods and before school. After school they continued to work until they were sent home by the teacher.

The comments of the children were significant. A new feeling of confidence rang in their voices. The presence of brighter children who admired their workmanship gave a "lift" to the chin and a feeling of "belonging" that had not been there before. One of the "artists" was overheard saying, "I bet when this is hung in our room, every one in school will want to come to see it."

The success attained in this group project caused the members to exert more effort in other classes. Voluntary contributions were more numerous, responsibility to the group was greater, and for all children there was a finer feeling of coöperation. Furthermore, improvement in creative thinking, poise, dignity, and self-confidence was also noted.

It seems to the writer that current stress upon health and physical activity in school has led teachers to overlook the growth of intellect, enjoyment, and social adjustment possible in group discussion. It is in taking part with others in groups in the solving of common problems that minds stimulate each other and ideas are clarified. Activity of mind is just as important to the welfare of a healthy individual as activity of any other part of the body.

Group work helps children who come from homes barren of ideas, materials, human understanding, and culture patterns. When these children participate in group activities they make friends, learn how to express themselves, learn how to coöperate, how to follow as well as to lead, how to give and take, how to be useful, and, probably most important of all, how to become socially adaptable and tolerant of others.

It is important that the same groupings do not become permanent. This would have a "narrowing" effect. Rather the composition of

groups must be often shifted in accordance with the interests and abilities of the children. The advantages of shifting groups are many: (1) each child may find the kind of group in which his native talents find the best opportunity for development, (2) a wide variety of social relationships are possible, (3) disciplinary problems are reduced, (4) there is a greater opportunity to have the experience of assuming responsibility, (5) all children are given many opportunities to become socially useful, and (6) much opportunity is given for judging the worth of different values.

After all, education is just teaching children how to be healthy, happy, useful citizens; and what better way can this be accomplished than by making the life of the classroom as near as possible like that of the groups to be found in every community?

EUROPEAN JOURNALS AND THE WAR

The nonreceipt by a subscriber of any European chemical or other scientific journal seriously needed as research material should be promptly reported to the American Documentation Institute.

The Cultural Relations Committee of the American Documentation Institute, which coöperates closely with the Cultural Relations Division of the Department of State, is working on this problem, and hopes to be able to surmount such war obstacles as interrupted transportation, embargoes, and censorship, which so grievously affected the progress of research during the last war.

The principle should be established, if possible, that the materials of research having no relation to war shall continue to pass freely, regardless of the countries of origin or destination.

Reports, with full details of where subscription was placed and name and address of subscriber, volume, date, and number of last issue received, should be addressed to: American Documentation Institute, Bibliofilm Service, c/o United States Department of Agriculture Library, Washington, D. C.

MEASUREMENT IN GROUP LEARNING

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Those who seek to know much more about learning must surely feel that the measurement of learning is still more of a promise than an actuality. The need of the teacher for new knowledge to use for guidance in educational method continues to push the researcher. The interest of educational sociology is in the child as a member of a family or a play group, as a citizen, and as an individual that is now functioning in outside-of-school activities ninety per cent of his total time.[1] The demand that knowledge and skills must serve the individual in his relations outside the schoolroom forces larger considerations upon measurement. Again and again the questions repeat. What do students learn? How does this learning influence thinking and acting and feeling?

The research directed at these questions has come largely from those trained in education, psychology, and sociology. A review of the research results and techniques contributed from the field of education indicates great concentration upon methods of teaching. The assumption has been that some methods of teaching are superior in furthering learning. A large number of studies employing controlled experimentation have been carried out to find these "better" methods. Two equivalent groups of pupils—one experimental and the other control—are subjected to educational influences that are the same except for the variation in methodology of instruction being studied. The difference between the mean gains in achievement of the two groups is used as an index of the relative effectiveness of the two teaching methods. This excellent technique of research is subject to many serious problems. Of major importance is the influence of uncontrolled factors. The range of influences

[1] E. George Payne, "Determining the Results of Education," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, April 1928, pp. 468–476.

bearing upon pupil achievement are yet only partially identified. There are pupil factors such as general intelligence, age, previous achievement, study habits, etc.; teacher factors, such as employment of various instructional techniques, skill, and zeal; general school factors; and extraschool factors.[2] Errors of measurement are also to be considered. Peters says he is struck by the prevailing note of controlled experiments in education that "no statistically significant differences were found." This he attributes to the use of invalid or unreliable measures or too small populations.[3]

Systematic errors of validity are difficult to locate. Learning may involve formation and understanding of concepts, development of careful and critical thinking, changes in overt behavior, development of specific attitudes, interests, and appreciations, and development of an adequate and intelligent philosophy of life.[4] A test of achievement which does not measure directly all phases of learning specified by the definition of the problem excludes outcomes of considerable importance. For example, the comparison of the relative effectiveness of the lecture and discussion may be made by using an objective, information-seeking test. Only a partial measurement of the learning outcome is thus made. The result is either a report of "no significant differences" or a report favoring one method because of the test bias. It seems appropriate to ask if there are any "best" methods of teaching. Walter S. Monroe says "it appears reasonable that the effectiveness of a method may be conditioned to such an extent by a teacher's confidence in it and the zeal and skill with which she applies it that the method itself is a minor factor in teaching success."[5]

Mechanized instruction does not represent our ideas of good teaching. The superior teacher is resourceful, adapting instruction

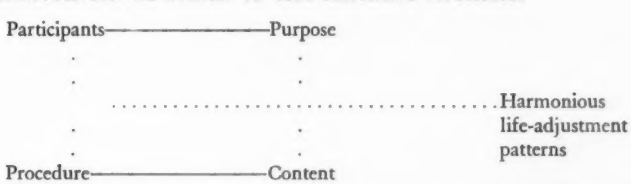
[2] Walter S. Monroe, "Controlled Experimentation as a Means of Evaluating Methods of Teaching," *Review of Educational Research*, February 1934, pp. 36–42.
[3] Charles C. Peters, "An Example of Replication of an Experiment for Increased Reliability," *Journal of Educational Research*, September 1938, pp. 3–9.
[4] Anita D. Laton, "Studies of Learning in School Situations," *Educational Methods*, May 1937, pp. 427–431.
[5] Monroe, *op.cit.*

to the needs of her pupils as they are revealed from day to day. A method best at any given time or for any given pupil or group may be quite unsuitable at another time or for other pupils. If we agree to this proposition, measurement of group learning is not a problem of evaluating the results of a particular method to be continually followed. The task is that of inventing measuring instruments that are effective in revealing learning outcomes regardless of the methods being used by the teacher. The need is for standardized psychometric and sociometric scales by which the learning activities can be measured and expressed as numerical readings on these scales. If we turn our attention to the problem of supplementing measurement methods with reliable instruments of measurement,[6] we shall be able to evaluate teaching under a philosophy of education which frees the teacher from the bonds of a "best" teaching method to the unfettered activity most effective at any given time.

This relativist or situational approach makes the social situation the focus of attention. It constitutes a configuration, the wholeness of which gives meaning to the constituent parts. In the teaching situation four factors are always distinguishable. These are *purpose, participants, procedure,* and *content* (*see* chart I).

CHART I

A CONFIGURATIONAL DESIGN OF THE TEACHING SITUATION



This picture contains interdependent factors each in itself having implications for the other. The objective of learning activity may be stated as the continuous reconstruction of personal experience in the search for harmonious life-adjustment patterns. Participants are

[6] Cf. F. S. Chapin, "New Trends in Social Research—Some Hypotheses and Some Sociometric Scales," *The Journal of Educational Sociology,* May 1938, pp. 561–568.

Sociometric scales are tools or instruments of observation. Method is a way of proceeding. The interview is a method; a calibrated social-status scale is an instrument.

commonly sent to the teacher irrespective of the teacher's choice. Procedure, content, and purpose must be determined in the light of participants' needs. As these needs change so the artist teacher changes the variable factors in such a way that maximum efficiency is attained. This is education at its best.

In the modern philosophy of education the interdependence of the factors must be carefully considered. It could be argued that it is always wasteful to make either procedure, content, or purpose a fixed factor, ignoring the participant whose problems and interests constitute the center of the teaching situation. However, in granting this premise, it must be recognized that cultural compulsions do not leave teaching purposes entirely to the choice of the felt or imagined needs of participants. There is substantial agreement among elementary and secondary teachers that subject matter or content should not be regarded as an independent factor. It is the emphasis of this paper that a teaching procedure is not that independent factor which accounts for teaching success or failure. If these assumptions are demonstrable, then measurement finds its proper sphere in the determination of the success of a teacher in directing pupils to harmonious life-adjustment patterns. If psychometric and sociometric scales are to be useful in the determination, they must be so designed or in such number that learning outcomes may be evaluated regardless of variations in purpose, participants, procedure, and content. Only in this way can the full measure of learning products be ascertained. If the full measure of learning products can be determined, then the free choice of teaching procedure remains with the teacher and learning activity can be evaluated in any teaching situation.

The critic is most ready to say, "Can you measure the learning outcomes which you describe as understanding of concepts, critical methods of thinking, changes in overt behavior, attitudes, and interests, and development of philosophy of life?" This challenging question cannot be answered in an enthusiastic affirmative but it can be answered with enough evidence of achievement to demonstrate ever more gratifying possibilities in future efforts. Examples of this

work are Wrightstone's instrument for measuring group discussion and planning on the elementary level; also his instrument for measuring teacher conduct of class discussion.[7] Pistor has developed a measure of thirty-four trait actions validated by seventy-three judges to evaluate some subtle values of progressive education including initiative, work spirit, reliability, coöperation, courtesy, worthy home membership, and good housekeeping.[8] Teachers are becoming increasingly aware of the Chapin social status and social participation scales, Rundquist and Sletto's morale scales, and the Thurstone attitude scales. An increase in the use of these standardized and calibrated instruments may be expected.

Measurement can take place during the interaction of learners with one another or after the interaction providing an adequate record is available. Efforts have been directed at each alternative. An instrument has been devised to measure the extent to which discussion is successful in promoting thinking among college students. Categories which were selected for an observational record include inference question, inference statement, supported opinion, information question, factual statement, and unsupported opinion.[9]

[7] J. Wayne Wrightstone, "An Instrument for Measuring Group Discussion and Planning," *Journal of Educational Research,* May 1934, pp. 641–650.

——, "Measuring Teacher Conduct of Class Discussion," *Elementary School Journal,* February 1934, pp. 454–460.

[8] Frederick Pistor, "Measuring Some Subtle Values of Progressive Education," *Educational Method,* December 1934, pp. 118–124.

[9] 1. *Inference Question:* A question which is concluded from a proposition or series of propositions which have been laid down by the participant at any one participation; e.g., If war is cruel and wasteful, why does man not abolish it?

2. *Inference Statement:* A statement which is concluded from a proposition or series of propositions which have been laid down by the participant at any one participation; e.g., War is cruel and wasteful. Man should abolish it.

3. *Supported Opinion:* A statement of personal belief or disbelief which is supported by a proposition or series of propositions; e.g., I don't believe war should be abolished because it serves to relieve overpopulation.

4. *Information Question:* A question not related to a proposition or series of propositions which have been laid down by a participant at any one participation; e.g., Is war cruel and wasteful?

5. *Factual Statement:* A proposition or series of propositions with no conclusion; e.g., War is cruel and wasteful.

6. *Unsupported Opinion:* A statement of personal belief or disbelief which is unsupported by any facts or evidence; e.g., I think war is cruel and wasteful.

A flow sheet is used by independent observers who classify and record each response in each participation. Records of the observers are compared for reliability before they are accepted as accurate data. Expert judges who attend rate the discussion in terms of criteria considered important whenever this procedure is employed. The judges are considering the leader, his qualifications, and his conduct during the discussion. They are watching the group members as they participate, weighting the understanding and agreement secured, the distribution of responses, the apparent interest, and the questions from the group. They are deciding if the discussion was the best procedure to use, evaluating the need for it, and the results secured. Now the research worker has two sources of fruitful data; first, the rating by experts on a procedure chosen by the teacher as best suited to direct participants towards a purposive goal with the given content materials. Secondly, the reliable record of the thought patterns of participants as revealed by their verbal responses. It is possible with these data to determine the kind and extent of responses which the teacher was able to stimulate. Moreover, if records are taken continuously, the progress of each student can be determined.[10]

Stenographic records of class procedures can be made and these are susceptible to more detailed analysis. A section of a suggested chart is presented on page 247.

This method takes into account the factors of the teaching configuration. It is constructed in such a manner that observers may discover the success of the discussion leader in transmitting knowledge either directly or through the participations of discussion members. The part played by leader and participants is graphically demonstrated. The attainment of purpose can be evaluated by judges.

The measurement of group learning whether attempted by the instruments suggested or evaluated by the method of case analysis

[10] For a more complete report *see* D. C. Miller, "An Experiment in the Measurement of Social Interaction in Group Discussion," *American Sociological Review*, June 1939, pp. 341–351.

Purpose	Participants	Stages	Content (As revealed by leader and participants)	Charting		Psychological Elements	Interpretation of procedure
				Instructor	Students		
To contrast 1. Students unskilled (verbal) treatment with 2. Case workers' skilled knowledge of exact next step to follow in each situation	Advanced college students, mainly women, preparing for social case work	I. Period of unemployment for Steve Hatalla His activities before applying to a relief agency	A. Case represents a type of unemployment known as cyclical.	Describes case. Asks information question. Affirms	Word answer	Discussion continues with fairly even tenor. Occasional disagreement by the instructor with factual answers of students. A definite superordinate subordinate relationship exists between leader and students.	This progression represents an attempt by the instructor to utilize questions as means of concentrating attention. No extended attempt was made to withdraw information from students. In three cases the instructor denied the validity of the students' information.
			B. Resources of family before they apply for relief. 1. Use of insurance 2. Use of credits a) Food merchant can afford less to extend credit than landlord	Question for information. Information question Refutes Summarizes	Fact Fact Fact Fact Fact		

will be satisfactory to teachers only when they are free to teach effectively. Educated intelligence and sympathetic insight enable each participant by his contribution to stimulate and direct others in social interaction which is continuous and fruitful. Under optimum

conditions, the leader is thus relieved of much responsibility for formal exercise of control. The leader is efficient to the extent that he contributes questions, fact, and opinion which produce a maximum yield of thoughtful participations.

Teachers will be quick to point out that they do not usually have the opportunity to teach under these conditions which have been declared optimum. By and large, participants are pupils, heterogeneous in respect to intelligence, to education, and to sympathetic insight. It is with these pupils that the need of evaluating discussion arises. Social research can measure the learning products in terms of the instruments and objective tests available but it is not so easy to measure the ability of the teacher in relation to other teaching leadership. The writer found that whenever the discussion was at its best (as rated by judges on objective score cards), the number of inference questions, inference statements, and supported opinions from students varies directly with the inference questions of instructor ($\bar{r} = .87$). Likewise, inference questions, inference statements, and supported opinions of students vary inversely with information questions and fact statements of instructor ($\bar{r} = -.94$). This indicates that a greater use of inference questions by the instructor brings about an increase in inference questions, inference statements, and supported opinions which students contribute. An increase in information questions and fact statements employed by the instructor stunts student inferences, questions, and opinions.[21] These relationships, it shall be repeated, were discovered only in the discussions rated as best. Assuming that the discovery of relationships is a criterion of thoughtful participation, we have here evidence that the particular method, group discussion, is well adapted to some teaching situations and ill-adapted to others. Furthermore, we have a firmer conviction that only as conditions approach an optimum can we evaluate the possibilities of a given method.

The reasons for failure of discussions can usually be assigned.

[21] *See* D. C. Miller, *op.cit.*, p. 347.

They are to be classified among the following: (1) Purpose may be unattainable. (2) Participants may be incapable of making efforts to solve the problem, lacking mental ability, educational training, or emotional stability. (3) Procedure may be faulty. No need may have been felt or available resources are not marshaled because of inadequate discussion leadership. (4) Content may be incomplete. Resources to solve the problem are not made available either by leader or participants.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Measurement of group learning is a problem of measuring the relative success of a teacher in stimulating learning that looks toward development of life-adjustment patterns to serve pupils in life activities.

2. Teaching method itself, isolated from other variables, is a minor factor in teaching success. The teaching situation is a configuration of at least the four factors of purpose, participants, procedure, and content. Only at a given time, after the analysis of the situation promises optimum results with a particular procedure, does method become a most important factor.

3. Psychometric and sociometric instruments enable measurements to be made in a teaching situation which frees the teacher to employ any method that promises maximum results.

4. The test of teaching achievement is the kind and extent of responses which the teacher is able to stimulate when directed toward the development of life-adjustment patterns in pupils.

5. The discussion activity of pupils can be measured. More accurate measures of critical thinking, of changes in attitudes and interests are being constructed.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL *may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology.*

NEBRASKA PLANNING BOARD'S EDUCATIONAL SURVEY[1]

The 1937 session of the Nebraska Unicameral Legislature gave legal status to the Nebraska State Planning Board. The Board had operated previously as a Governor-appointed board. In the same statute the Board was authorized "to make a complete and thorough survey and study of the lands, buildings, and equipment owned or controlled by the State of Nebraska and operated by the Normal School Board, Board of Control, and the University of Nebraska," and "make a report of its findings to the Governor together with a recommended ten-year program of needed repairs, replacements, new construction, or expansion, complete with estimates of cost and a recommended plan for financing."

Committees were organized from the membership of the Board to study the needs of various institutions. The committees proceeded in their studies intending to make their decisions on a physical basis in so far as it was possible. Before proceeding very far, however, the committees expressed a need for information of a nonphysical nature not then available before they could recommend a comprehensive building program for State-supported educational institutions.

At the suggestion of the Planning Board, Governor Cochran invited the heads of the State educational agencies and offices to meet with the Planning Board to consider the problem of obtaining the needed information. Attending this meeting with the Planning Board and Governor Cochran were the Chancellor of the University of Nebraska, the President of the Board of Regents for the University of Nebraska, the Comptroller for the Board of Education for State Normal Schools and, representing that Board, the Presidents of the four State Teachers' Colleges (Normal Schools), the Deputy State Superintendent of Public

[1] Statement through the courtesy of A. C. Tilley, State Engineer and Chairman, Nebraska State Planning Board, Lincoln, Nebraska.

Instruction, the State Director of Vocational Education. All agencies represented joined with the Planning Board in requesting Commissioner J. W. Studebaker to assign Dr. Fred J. Kelly, of the United States Office of Education, as adviser for a partial survey of the educational program of the State.

A survey committee was appointed from the membership of the Planning Board to be responsible for the survey. A subcommittee was named by this committee with a Planning Board member as chairman, and remaining members representative schoolmen, to determine the scope of the survey and to develop the organization of the survey.

This scope committee decided upon the studies that were to be pursued and recommended a chairman to carry the responsibility of each study. The study chairmen were chosen from representatives of the educational agencies and institutions of the State. An attempt was made by the scope committee to include only those studies that would have some bearing on the question at hand, "What are the building needs for the State institutions of higher education?" Some of the studies adopted seem to bear but slight relation to the question, but after prolonged discussions it was felt that the material called for was necessary for the full consideration of the first question.

The scope committee and the study committees were made up very largely of the State's leading educators. The whole survey, therefore, amounts to a self-survey and is unique in that respect. The volunteer assistance received from the educational groups, agencies, and institutions makes possible a much more comprehensive survey than otherwise would have been possible with the funds available.

The scope committee recommended the following eight questions for study. A brief statement is made indicating the methods used in accumulating the information.

Study No. 1. What kinds of jobs are there in Nebraska and the approximate number of each kind calling for vocational training of less than professional grade?

Questionnaires are distributed through school children to the homes. The gainful worker will fill out the card and return it to the school.

Study No. 2. What changes in the schools and colleges will be required in order that young people may be trained for the jobs revealed by study No. 1?

The returns from the other studies, especially study No. 1, will be considered by a large committee representing all interested agencies under

the chairmanship of Dr. Fred J. Kelly, Chief, Division of Higher Education, United States Office of Education. Members of the committee will report on the different phases of the present educational program.

Study No. 3. Why do students drop out of high school and college before completing the course for which they are enrolled and in what numbers?

Information has been obtained from high-school records, personal follow-up efforts in a few schools, NYA records, and college records.

Study No. 4. What is the employment status of the graduates of high schools and colleges of recent years?

High schools are furnishing a record of graduates for the last five years where available. Colleges are sending out questionnaires to graduates.

Study No. 5. What are the present educational requirements for the several teacher certificates, the number of certificates of each kind issued per year? From what institutions are applicants for certificates graduated? And what are the demands for teachers compared with the supply?

The information is obtained from State Superintendents' records and questionnaires to city and county superintendents.

Study No. 6. How does Nebraska compare with neighboring States in the amount appropriated for higher education per unit of population and per student enrolled? In the amount expended for higher education in publicly controlled institutions and in privately controlled institutions? In the ratio of college students to total population? In the per cent of high-school graduates entering college?

Data are obtained from college, university, and State records.

Study No. 7. Is there unnecessary and costly overlapping or duplication of functions or courses offered in the several State-supported institutions?

This involves a study of courses and curricula with data on enrollments in each class taught over a period of a year or possibly two years.

These studies are being made through the assistance of the United States Office of Education.

Study No. 8. What does the State do to equalize educational opportunity among the counties, towns, and rural districts? Is the plan of district organization economical?

This is a study of variations among districts in expenditures per pupil, in length of term, in training of teachers employed, etc., and an appraisal of the plan of district organization, especially high-school districts.

The information is obtained from the records of the State Superintendent and the State Tax Commissioner.

BOOK REVIEWS

America Now, Edited by Harold E. Sterns. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938, x + 606 pages.

This "Inquiry into Civilization in the United States," by thirty-six Americans deals with the arts, business and labor, science and industry, politics, education, types of living, health, race, religion, and three evaluations of our country by an Oriental, a Mexican, and an Englishman. Among the contributions we find such well-known names as Bruce Bliven, George Souel, Zechariah Chafee, Jr., Christian Gauss, John Cowles, Robert L. Duffus, Karl A. Menninger, and V. F. Calverton. As is always the case with such kinds of symposiums, various chapters are of unequal value and do not always treat fully their subjects. Thus, for instance, the section dealing with education analyzes almost entirely only the problems of our college education. But, on the whole, the work constitutes an almost indispensable document for any one who wishes to understand the most outstanding trends in our life.

Public Opinion, by William Albig. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939, 499 pages.

Albig's sociological approach to public opinion is probably the best current treatment of that phenomena. The author has not, fortunately, approached the subjects of growth of communication, the emergence and organization of propaganda, the control of newspapers, radio, and motion pictures, the questions of restriction and censorship, the conscious manipulation of legends and the like as "problems" or as "menaces." He has been able to maintain with consistency his objective—to develop these phenomena as related to other aspects of the social process. One of the strongest points of Albig is his ability to utilize the researches of foreign sociologists (such as Max Weber) and integrate their contributions of our knowledge of "irrational" elements of our thinking with his subject. Here is a work which indicates that America's sociological scholarship is now "coming of age."

Industrial Valley, by Ruth McKenney. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1939, 379 pages.

Rubber is the first and last fact of life to the people of Akron, Ohio.

For the most part this important product is milled and steamed and hammered into tires by big drawling mountaineers who came to Akron during the World War from West Virginia, Tennessee, and Alabama. The city is medium-sized and ranks thirty-fifth among American industrial cities. It may well be said that Akron exploded from a bustling town into a roaring city. Its population according to the 1930 census was 255,000 and eighty-eight per cent of these people are under fifty.

Miss McKenney's story is the true story of this town. The depression came, cast its fatal shadow over the factories of the great rubber magnates, and a new Akron came into being. Goodrich, Goodyear, Firestone, and the little independents closed down. The workers of the boom town faced want. The NRA and the New Deal followed. Then came the great struggle for union recognition. The nascent forces of collective bargaining soon burst the obsolete cocoon of the A. F. of L. Industrial unionism seemed to answer the needs of the workers. There were sit-downs, machine guns, and stench bombs. But Miss McKenney's book tells all that in succinct and pointed paragraphs. *Industrial Valley* is a marvellous revelation of present-day social change.

We Too Are the People, by LOUISE V. ARMSTRONG. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1938, 474 pages.

This is one of the few sympathetic, human records of three years of Federal relief. It is autobiographical yet the author has submerged herself in telling the stories of those about her. It is a series of case studies—of old folks, men in boots, Indians, wild women, the Trolls, of young children—yet each becomes a living, feeling individual who is more than a "case" to this administrator of the Federal programs—CWA, FERA, and WPA.

In the vivid yet simple language of a good teller of stories the author describes the first night when the State administrator skillfully parried the opposition of those who wanted the Federal money but resented Federal control in its spending; tells of the constant attempt of a few storekeepers, home owners, and petty politicians to "cut in" on the relief money; realistically emphasizes the difficulties of administration and sense of uncertainty of relief clients resulting from the frequent governmental changes in relief organization; and recounts the organized opposition of those who sought to transform the relief bureau into a political spoils system.

With equal vividness the author recounts the experiences that afforded

a touch of humor amidst pathos, gives us a glimpse of the painstaking and careful consideration of those who earnestly sought to maintain human values at a time when the depression seemed to be sweeping them away, and confides a little of the genuine and sincere appreciation of all but a few of that almost endless line that filed through the office of the administration of relief.

The volume is neither a criticism nor a defense of the Federal relief program. It is rather an unbiased and a living document that turns the reader away from the pettiness of politics, greed, and personal jealousies to see the human side of relief in one county in northern Michigan. Every line breathes of the fine, human understanding embodied in the concluding paragraph:

"The real beauty of living human beings still survives. It has only been suppressed by a misguided philosophy. I caught little glimpses of it all about me. . . . An old man, basking in the warmth of a little kindness, spreads out newspapers over his 'beautiful' quilt . . . chivalry still lives in the heart of a tempestuous boy. Why can we not foster the priceless human values of our people instead of forever crushing them underfoot in the stampede for money and power? . . . More will share these thoughts as we progress out of an era of self-seeking toward a saner viewpoint, a wiser estimate of value—as we must progress if we are to survive."

The Development of Education in the Twentieth Century, by Adolph E. Meyer. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939, 406 pages.

This is a useful guide to modern schools through four decades. Concise sections present main trends in education, notable experimental schools, and outstanding educators. The reports deal briefly with types of education from preschool to adult education. The author has combined direct observation of many schools in the United States and Europe with careful study of the political and social forces shaping educational institutions. The analysis of national school systems in five European countries includes diagrams and charts to clarify details.

For students of comparative education and progressive schools this volume is a useful handbook for orientation and reference.

The Problem of Social Change, by NEWELL LE ROY SIMS. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1939, viii + 477 pages.

This is one of the better books published this season. If one reads it with the idea of determining the extent of social change, or evaluating the problems of social change in our culture, he is doomed to disappointment. It rather borders on the area of systematics. Professor Sims sets three criteria of social change (1) change in group composition (2) change in human nature, and (3) change in culture.

While the book sheds much light on the problem of change, its greatest value to the reviewer was the critical analysis of many of the theories prevalent in the field of social science. Biologic determinism, geographic determinism, racial determinism, automatic processes of social change, revolutionary processes of social change, and the social-progress concept all come in for critical evaluation.

The book is scholarly, straightforward in presentation, and sound in its criticism of social theory. It deserves a place on every sociologist's purchase list.

Przeglad Socjologiczny, by the POLISH SOCIOLOGICAL INSTITUTE. Poznań, Vol. VII, 1–2, 1939, 427 pages.

As probably the last sociological publication to reach us from the former independent state of Poland, we must value very highly this quarterly which compares very favorably with our best American sociological periodicals. Especially valuable, from its ten studies by Polish authors, are the articles by J. Szczepański on "Race Mythology of German Peasantry" and by S. Rychliński on "Types of Social Ladder."

Americans in the Making, by WILLIAM CARLSON SMITH. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1939, xvii + 454 pages.

As a conscientious synthesis of the available material on the "natural history of the assimilation of immigrants," this is the best current text on the social psychology of the immigration process which seeks an understanding of the way in which the immigrant reacts to the new conditions and strange social and economic environment which confront him.